

Key concepts & study plan



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#### Estimation vs prediction

#### Estimation

represents step of understanding current behaviour

find best model parameters

#### Prediction

how will behaviour change under given scenario?

• e.g. some products are added/removed/changed

involves applying estimated model, not reestimating it on changed data

#### The basics of forecasting

□ Apply estimated model to:

- predict choices in <u>new</u> settings
- predict impact of changes in products
- predict impact of changes in population
- Mainly relevant in labelled settings

#### **Forecasting matters**

- Many studies are primarily interested in willingness-to-pay
- $\hfill\square$  Even then, useful diagnostic check to look at forecasts
- □ For example, does estimated model give reasonable implied elasticities?
- □ Well fitting models do not necessarily lead to good forecasts!
- Substantial risk of over-fitting to estimation data

#### How do we produce forecasts?

 $\hfill\square$  Use estimated  $\beta$  to calculate  $V_{jn}$  and  $P_{jn}$  for all n and j

parameter	Apple iPhone	Samsung Galaxy	Huawei P
2.5	1	0	0
0.75	0	1	0
0.2	8	4	2
-0.01	600	400	350
V	-1.9	-2.45	-3.1
$e^V$	0.1496	0.0863	0.0450
Р	53.24%	30.72%	16.04%
	Question:		
	What is cho	osen?	
	2.5 0.75 0.2 -0.01 <i>V</i> $e^{V}$	$\begin{array}{cccccc} 2.5 & 1 \\ 0.75 & 0 \\ 0.2 & 8 \\ -0.01 & 600 \\ V & -1.9 \\ e^{V} & 0.1496 \\ P & 53.24\% \end{array}$ Question:	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

#### Assigning choice to Apple ignores probabilistic nature

	Apple iPhone	Samsung Galaxy	Huawei P
V	-1.9	-2.45	-3.1
Ρ	53.24%	30.72%	16.04%

- $\Box$  Use average  $P_i$  across N instead of individual-level predictions
- Or assign choice according to  $P_j$ 
  - In our case, take a random draw 0 <=  $r_U$  <= 1
    - if  $r_U \ll 0.5324$ , choose Apple iPhone
    - if 0.5324  $< r_U <=$  0.8396, we choose Samsung Galaxy
    - if  $0.8396 < r_U$ , we choose Huawei P

Try deterministic\_vs\_probabilistic.xlsx for a mode choice example



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#### Studying the impact of a change in cost

- Carry out prediction with increased cost and get new predicted choices/demand
- □ Might seem reasonable to compare to base cost choices in data
- □ Would mean comparing a modelled outcome to an observed outcome
  - model outcomes are affected by error, while data is not
  - model is not likely to perfectly reproduce base scenarios
    - except for linear-in-parameters MNL with full set of ASCs

#### Solution

- Make two predictions from model
  - Baseline prediction: apply model without changing attributes/population
  - Forecast prediction: apply model with changed data
- Can then compare forecast to baseline application
- Both are affected by the same model bias

#### Elasticities

Elasticity is percent change in probability as a result of change in an attribute

# Own elasticity of MNL $E_{i,x_{k,i}} = \frac{\partial V_i}{\partial x_{k,i}} x_{k,i} \left(1 - P_i\left(\beta\right)\right),$ with linear in attributes V, $\frac{\partial V_i}{\partial x_{k,i}} = \beta_{x_k}$

Cross-elasticity of MNL  
$$E_{i,x_{k,j}} = -\frac{\partial V_j}{\partial x_j} x_{k,j} P_j(\beta),$$
exhibiting *IIA* characteristic

Much more complex for advanced models

#### Elasticities: arc elasticity approach

#### Baseline application

 $\Box$  predicted share for product *i*:  $S_{i,base}$ 

#### Forecast prediction

 $\Box$  apply same increase (e.g. cost) for whole sample, say  $\Phi_C = \frac{C_{i,new}}{C_{i,base}}$ , e.g.  $\Phi_C = 1.01$ 

• obtain new share for product *i*:  $S_{i,forecast}$ 

#### Elasticity calculation

$$\square \text{ Calculate } E_{i,C} = log\left(\frac{S_{i,forecast}}{S_{i,base}}\right) / log(\Phi_C)$$

See elasticities.xlsx

### Marginal effects

- Approach used especially with categorical variables
- □ Compare predicted demand at two different levels of a given variable
- Could also use with continuous variables
- □ Can use for attributes of alternatives, characteristics of decision-makers, etc
- Approach:

Prediction 1: Make prediction of demand with variable of interest set to first level of interest for entire data:  $D_{j,1} = \sum_n \sum_t P_{jnt} (x_{jnt} = L_1)$ Prediction 2: Make prediction of demand with variable of interest set to second level of interest for entire data:  $D_{j,2} = \sum_n \sum_t P_{jnt} (x_{jnt} = L_2)$ Comparison: Compute  $\frac{D_{j,2} - D_{j,1}}{D_{j,1}}$ 

### Corrections to constants and scale



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### Corrections to constants and scale

#### Correcting market shares

- Market shares in estimation sample may be very different from real world market shares
- $\hfill\square$  Can recalibrate the model by adjusting the alternative specific constants
- □ Let  $\delta_j^0$  be the the estimated constant for alternative *j* before correction, with  $S_j^0$  being the market share predicted by the uncorrected model
- Let  $S_i^R$  be the real world market share
- Constants can be adapted to:  $\delta_j^1 = \delta_j^0 + \log \left(\frac{S_j^R}{S_j^0}\right)$
- □ Iterative process which can require a few steps
- See asc\_correction.xlsx

### Corrections to constants and scale

#### Correcting the scale

- □ Scale especially in SP data may be very different from real world scale
- □ Ideally, this can be corrected through joint RP-SP estimation
- But RP data might not always be available
- Compute implied cost elasticity with estimated coefficients
- Compare elasticity with expectations or official guidelines
- □ Then adjust the scale until the two are in line
- $\hfill\square$  See scale\_correction.xlsx



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#### Care is required

- Need to consider whether the estimated model is suitable for forecasting the given scenario
- E.g. was the estimation scenario substantially different in scope?
- □ Also, need to consider correction of scale and recalibration of constants

#### **Population changes**

- □ Real world forecasting would likely also require adjusting the sample of respondents
- We often estimate models on small samples, and then apply them to very large samples in sample enumeration
- Another key issue in forecasting is that we also need to forecast changes in the population of decision makers and in the characteristics of the choice sets they face

#### Sample enumeration

- Assemble a population to use in forecasting
  - either based on real data (e.g., census), or synthetic population
  - or estimation sample
- □ Apply the model to this data, i.e., make a prediction for each person in that data
- Potentially incorporate weights in that process to make the sample representative
- □ Then aggregate demand
- If the model incorporates interactions with person characteristics, then the forecasts in sample enumeration will be different depending on those
  - this is one of the key benefits of using deterministic heterogeneity as much as possible



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#### Attribute importance based on utility

- □ Commonly used in some areas, not in others
- Compare potential range of utility impact for attributes
  - from worst to best level
- Issue
  - utility based attribute importance can be quite different from impact on probabilities/choices

#### Alternative approaches

- Elasticities
  - mainly relevant for labelled choices
  - only for continuous attributes
- Marginal effects/impact on probabilities
  - use entire sample
  - · keep all attributes unchanged except for the one of interest
  - make two predictions at different levels for that attribute
    - e.g. best and worst level
  - compare potential impact on probabilities

#### Example on Covid-19 vaccine study

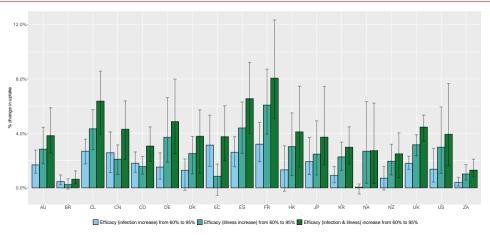
- Six tasks per respondent
- Choice between two vaccines or no vaccine, and between free (with wait) or paid (no wait) access
- Efficacy presented as remaining risk of infection to give respondents a baseline (for no vaccine)

#### Scenario 1:

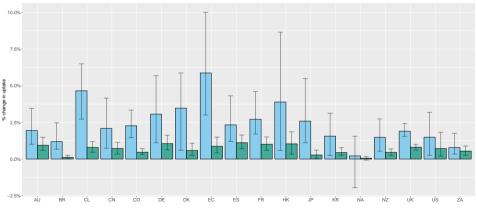
Please consider the following vaccination options and make your choice as if they happened in the current environment. Please remember there is no right or wrong answer.

	Vaccine A		Vaccine B		No vaccine
Risk of infection (out of 100,000 people coming in contact with infected person):	4,000 (4%)		3,000 (3%)		7,500 (7.5%)
Risk of serious illness (out of 100,000 people who become infected):	2,000 (2%)		4,000 (4%)		20,000 (20%
Estimated protection duration:	five years		two years		
Risk of mild side effects (out of 100,000 vaccinated people):	100 (0.1%)		500 (0.5%)		
Risk of severe side effects (out of 100,000 vaccinated people):	1 (0.001%)		5 (0.005%)		
Population coverage:	60%				
Exemption from International travel restrictions:	restrictions apply				restrictions apply
Walting time (free vaccination):	1 months		3 months		
Fee (no waiting time):		£100		£50	
	Vaccine A free	Vaccine A paid	Vaccine B free	Vaccine B paid	No vaccine
Your preferred choice is:	0	0	0	0	0

#### Impact of efficacy on vaccine uptake



#### Impact of protection duration



Protection increase from unknown to 12 months Protection increase from 12 months to 24 months

#### Impact of severe vs mild side effects

